

# ANGLO- SOVIET JOURNAL

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# **SCR**

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# THE ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL

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September 1969

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## *Editorial*

We have tried to satisfy some of the many requests we have received for articles on science and technology in the Soviet Union in this issue of the Journal. It has been a difficult task. Articles were commissioned a long time ago and they have either failed to arrive, or those we have received proved to be too narrowly specialised in our judgment or had been overtaken by similar articles in other available journals. The recent publication of *Science Policy in the USSR*, published by OECD, Paris, £5, has covered in very great detail much of the ground that we had in mind. Its 600 pages provide a survey of the Soviet machinery for elaborating science policy, Soviet scientific and

engineering manpower resources, the organisation and planning of scientific research in the Academies and higher education institutions, and the introduction of new scientific methods and discoveries by research and development in Soviet industry. The preparation of this major work was done mainly at the University of Birmingham Centre for Russian and East European Studies with the aid of experts drawn from France, Sweden and Germany. We recommend it to those of our readers who have a specialist interest in this field.

We have drawn on this publication a little to supplement the account we give of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences which celebrates its 50th anniversary this year. We hope that this account will also serve to meet the criticisms that have been advanced that we too rarely cover individual republics in the Soviet Union. And we hope to be able to do more of this in future.

We offer no apology for drawing on the journal *Znanie Sila*, published by the Znanie Society for young people, and its adult version *Nauka i Zhizn*. These are, in our opinion, two of the most readable of Soviet publications and they are among the least utilised of our Society's library stock. The library includes a wide range of works in the field of applied science and technology, translated into readable English and extensively used throughout the English speaking world as texts in educational institutions. Yet they also are little used by our members. We do apologise, however, for the many minor inaccuracies that must have crept into the translation of our material which has been done in very great haste for this issue.

The continuation of the dialogue on *The Soviet Short Story* prompts us to record a note of regret at the tone of parts of Mr. Grinberg's comments on Mr. Bearne's original article. We have hesitated to change anything in the text of articles submitted in spite of our desire that the dialogue should be conducted in the spirit of colleagues engaged in a common effort towards greater understanding of problems and of each other's point of view.

We end our editorial with three further notes of regret. Members of the Society will already know that ill-health has forced Mr. Lippman Kessel to resign as Chairman of the Society. His long and devoted service started before he became Treasurer in 1952. He became Vice-Chairman in 1954 and Chairman in 1956 during which time he guided the Society through difficult times and inspired many of its successes. We wish him speedy recovery and hope that we shall continue to have his wise guidance in our future work.

We record with deep regret the death of Professor C. L. Wrenn early in June. He was chairman of the Council of the University of London School of Slavonic Studies from 1945-49, during which time, in the words of his obituary notice in *The Times*, 'he refused to allow political opinions to interfere with the cultural co-operation between Britain and Russia.' He was a member of the Society's delegation to the Soviet Union in 1950 and helped to draft the valuable report presented by it on its return.

We also record our regret at the death of Professor B. S. Rurikov in May, who served as editor of the journal *International Literature* and as Secretary of the Soviet Union of Writers. He made the first bold attack on single sex schools set up in the Soviet Union in war-time which was reprinted in our Journal.

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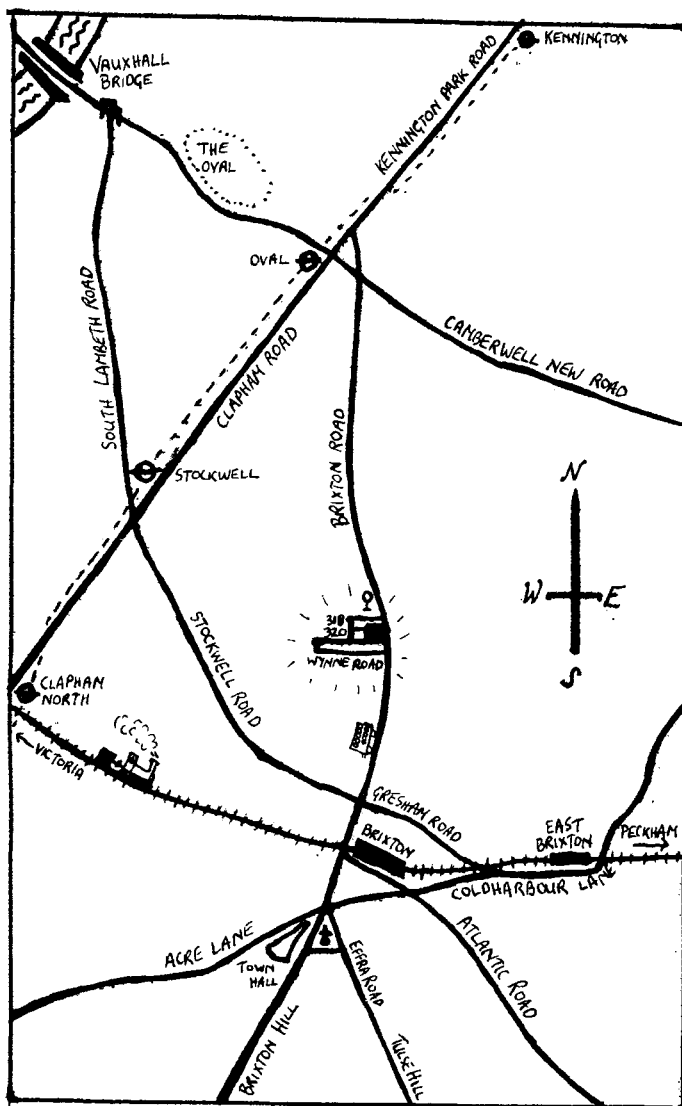
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# The Ukrainian Academy of Sciences

(Based on information given in *Nauka i Zhizn*, No. 5, 1969, and the report of an interview with Boris Paton, President of the Academy, published in *In Soviet Ukraine*, press bulletin, January 1969)

The Ukrainian Academy of Sciences is the oldest of the republic Academies and celebrates this year its 50th anniversary. In the summer of 1918, a group of progressive Ukrainian scientists met under the chairmanship of Academician Volodimir Vernadsky to work out a project for an Academy of Sciences. This project was achieved in February 1919, immediately after the establishment of Soviet power in Kiev. There were 140 staff in the Academy in 1919; today it has 68 institutes employing more than 30,000 research workers, including 109 academicians, 151 corresponding members and more than 3,500 doctors and masters of science.

The Ukrainian Ministry of Education approved the first regulations for the registration of post graduate students in 1930 and a year later the Ukrainian Institute of the Socialist Reconstruction of Agriculture admitted the first 50 post graduate students; other institutes followed suit in 1932.

## Notable achievements of the Academy

Some of the most remarkable of the scientific achievements of the Academy were made in the 1930s. The nucleus of the lithium atom was split for the first time in the Soviet Union by scientists working at the Kharkov Physical Technical Institute. Samples of heavy water were obtained by Professor A. I. Brodskii in 1934, for the first time in the Soviet Union. He also obtained heavy isotopes of oxygen in 1937 and of nitrogen in 1949, after which he was able to work out the mechanism of physical chemical transformations.

The first Soviet electrostatic accelerator of charged particles, with a capacity of 2.5 m. electron volts was built in 1935-36 at the Ukrainian Physical Technical Institute. Scientists throughout the world acknowledged the achievements of Academician A. A. Bogomolets in the 1930s when he formulated the theory of the colloidoplasma action of blood transfusion on the organism. A number of original methods for restorative eye surgery, which have been employed both in and outside the Soviet Union, were achieved by Academician V. P. Filatov in the same decade. The methods and instruments he designed for cornea transplants made the operation so simple that it could be performed by many other eye surgeons; he was among the first to use the eyes of deceased persons for transplant.

Methods of automatic welding were developed for the first time in the world at the Institute of Electric Welding, directed by E. O. Paton, and these were used in the manufacture of armour plate for Soviet tanks during the war. The first European electronic computer for scientific calculations was set up in Kiev in 1951, by Academician S. A. Lebedev. The Ukrainian Soviet Encyclopedia was prepared by some 5,000 specialists from 1958 to 1965 and published in 17 volumes. The largest European linear electron accelerator



was put into construction in 1966 at the Kharkov Physical Technical Institute. In the same year, the first T-type radio telescope (UTR-2) was completed at the research station of the Institute of Radio Physics and Electronics. It is 1,800 metres long and 60 metres wide, and covers an area of nearly 40 acres; signals from a distance of 10 milliard light years can be recorded by it.

Micro-electronic studies of intra cell processes by exact measurement of their parameters were made by a corresponding member of the Academy, P. G. Kostyuk. These experiments are among the highest achievements of neurophysiology during the past decade and, although they are at the moment of purely theoretical significance, they promise to have practical importance for the accurate diagnosis and better cure of nervous illness.

A new mechanism in the transfer of inherited characteristics was discovered by Ukrainian geneticists, directed by a corresponding member of the Ukrainian Academy, S. M. Gershenzon. It is known that this process is actively assisted by the two nucleic acids, DNA and RNA. It was considered that there was only one possible way in which inherited information could be passed to the cell; from DNA, the repository of the information, to RNA, which transferred it to the 'building blocks' in which albumen is synthesised. Gershenzon and his colleagues came to the conclusion that the reverse process was possible. This conclusion demanded the review of several basic propositions in genetics. Further work in this direction is opening up new means for the control of inheritance and for further attack on virus diseases.

Ukrainian chemists have many important scientific achievements to their credit. These include work in the fields of catalysis and its industrial applications, phosphor-organic compounds, polymers, the synthesis of hydrocarbon oils, and colloidal chemistry. The industrial fruits of this work include the development of new catalysts and the production of new materials from polymers, plastic glass, dyestuffs and insecticides.

A new theory of computation has been advanced by Ukrainian specialists in cybernetics that laid the foundation for the construction of new electronic computers and control systems. The 'Lvov' electronic system, which was developed by research carried out in the Ukrainian Institute of Cybernetics and at the Lvov Television Factory, was adopted in 1968 by a government commission. This system provides high quality control of production in large scale undertakings.

### **The oldest Ukrainian Institute**

The Ukrainian Institute of Mechanics is known as the Patriarch of Ukrainian Institutes; it is just 50 years old. It began with a staff of seven under the direction of Academician S. P. Timoshenko. The Civil War reduced it by 1921 to its then director, K. K. Siminskii, and his typist, aided by two voluntary assistants. It was housed in one room in the building now occupied by the Presidium of the Academy of Sciences. There were no research institutes in the Ukraine before the Revolution and scientific work was restricted to a few higher education establishments. The university tradition made itself felt when research institutes were set up. When the Institute of Technical Mechanics was founded in 1922, Academician K. M. Krylov was appointed as head of one of its departments which was called the chair in mathematical physics. The departmental staff consisted of Krylov and his student, the

30-year-old Nikolai Bogolyubov, who is now the Director of the Institute of Nuclear Research at Dubna and of the Institute of Theoretical Physics attached to the Ukrainian Academy.

The first work by Krylov and Bogolyubov was published by the Institute in 1924 and this laid the foundations for the new branch of science called non-linear mechanics, which now has applications wherever oscillating processes occur. They were theoreticians who needed only pencil and paper for their scientific work. Some microscopes for metallographic research were purchased by the director of the Institute in 1923 from representatives of German optical firms in Kiev and the first research laboratory was set up at the Institute. A section for the study of the theory and practice of electric welding was set up in the same year when E. O. Paton joined the staff of the Institute. This later became a separate Institute of Electric Welding, named after Paton, and this now enjoys a world-wide reputation.

### **The youngest Ukrainian Institute**

The Institute of Colloidal Chemistry was founded early in 1968. Research in this field had been carried on before the war by Academician A. V. Duman-skii, and his laboratory expanded considerably in the 1950s. There are now 13 sections of the Institute concerned with two major fields of research in connection with water purification.

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# Technical Progress from A to Z

*(A free translation of the leading article in 'Knowledge is Strength,' No. 6, 1969—the monthly popular science journal for young people)*

It would need more than the whole annual issue of *Knowledge is Strength* to give a systematic and detailed description, or even a short catalogue, of scientific and technical developments in the Soviet Union. We would in fact need to publish an encyclopedia in many volumes entitled Science and Technology starting with letter A, featuring His Excellency Automation, to letter Ya, including Nuclear Reaction with the hundreds of applications of nuclear energy. And when it was published it would be hopelessly out of date.

The wide and often turbulent flow of scientific and technical progress may be divided into two streams. One consists of those inventions, discoveries and achievements that are not rooted in past centuries and have only a modern history. These include lasers, space ships, atomic generating stations and electronic computers, the foundations for which were only prepared some 30-50 years ago. The other consists of a less dazzling collection of achievements which are, in many cases, only fully appreciated by the specialist. These include attempts to change traditionally established technological processes and the fundamental reconstruction of machines that have been produced by many generations of engineers. Just try to design afresh something better than a boat, a screw, an internal combustion engine, a chisel, china and glass, a ball-bearing, or a book, and you will understand what a titanic, head-splitting

task it is to introduce something new into that which is well established. But it is just in this field that the greatest saving in materials, energy, labour and money is to be made. Every one per cent saved in the cost of production in Soviet industry increases the national income by more than one and a half milliard roubles.

We have set out below a few pages from the many volumes describing technical progress in the form of the latest developments in the oldest techniques.

### **A Wedge-Screw-Bolt, or a Thing Without a Name**

The newest born has not yet been given a name. The invention is so recent that its Volgograd parents, A. and V. Bunchukov, do not know what to call their child. It seems that they decided to try to invent a nut and bolt. This is, without exaggeration, the most widely used unit of construction. Archimedes cried out in praise of the lever 'Give me a fulcrum and I will overturn the whole world.' The unknown inventor of the nut and bolt could well have said: 'Take away my bolt and the world will fall apart.'

The most ancient of mechanisms, thousands of years old, are the screw, the inclined plane and the lever. Their slightly younger successor is the bolt, which is a combination of the inclined plane, wound round a cylinder to give a screw staircase round the bolt. The bolt as a fixture, only challenged in its extensive use by its offspring the rivet, is not without faults. The slightest blow can damage its thread, which can also be spoiled by the presence of metal filings, scale or paint. It quickly becomes corroded when used in chemical apparatus, ovens and pipelines. A bolt works well under tension, but side pressure will break it at its weakest point in the trough of the thread. Many turns of a spanner are required to tighten the nut and thousands of workers throughout the world spend their whole working day operating a spanner.

And now suddenly appears a bolt free of these defects. It is the current technical sensation. Imagine the customary nut and bolt but without any thread. Then take a screw, or rather a three-cornered prism, and twist it one turn only round the shaft of the bolt. This is then welded into place. In the nut an indentation is made exactly fitting the prepared bolt. Whoever has a spatial imagination can easily picture this construction, but whoever lacks it . . . . A geometry professor once said that spatial imagination is like a sense of humour—if you have it, you have it, but if you lack it then there is nothing you can do about it.

The new wedge-screw-bolt, because of the thickness of contact with the nut, does not corrode, is not harmed by high temperatures nor damaged by blows, and does not come undone accidentally. It can be fixed with one turn of the spanner. The saving to be obtained by this new invention is beyond calculation because it is impossible to reckon the number of nuts and bolts used in every machine and every piece of apparatus.

### **Stone machines, or 'petrurgical' profit**

The directives of the Five-Year Plan provide that there must be a saving in the use of more than 8m. ton of wrought iron. This is equal to the annual output of such a giant as the Magnitogorsk Metallurgical Combine. How can this be done?

There is another and related problem—how to transport coal over long, short and medium hauls. Will the railways be adequate to carry this massive freight? It is more profitable to distribute coal by pipeline when it is mixed with water or, even more profitably, with oil. What pipe will survive constant abrasion and buffeting by pieces of hard coal. It is a tempting thought to try to find an everlasting pipe. It is hard to estimate how many acres of land need irrigation. The most advanced form is by underground pipeline which takes the moisture directly to the roots of plants without evaporation. This would involve the use of an astronomical quantity of pipe that could only be provided if it could be manufactured cheaply from materials that are plentifully available.

What can be substituted for metal that is cheaper and more lasting? Do not hasten to reply 'plastics.' We are writing on behalf of and in praise of stone. The younger sister of ancient metallurgy was 'petrurgia,' which means the treatment of stone. There is no such term in the Dictionary of Foreign Words, probably because it is a Russian word. The first person to work out the theory and practice of stone smelting was Academician F. Levenson-Lessing, a geologist who studied volcanoes. In a stone smelting plant the stone is fired in a furnace and poured out in a molten form, similar to lava from the crater of a volcano. Such plants are operating in Moscow and in the Donets Basin from which various basalt articles are manufactured, ranging from simple linings for stoves to intricate working parts of centrifugal pumps. The Moscow stone smelting plant engineers calculate that one ton of stone can replace anything from 3 to 8 tons of metal. The Ukrainians challenge this figure and claim that it can replace 12 tons of steel. We are not concerned to resolve this

# A RUSSIAN JOURNEY

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dispute but we have examined the evidence about the use of stone for pipes, pumps, gutters, centrifuges, chemical baths, flues, gas pipes and tanks for storing acids and alkalines. The facts are pleasingly uniform—months of good service are transformed into years. Articles made from stone last for years in situations in which sheet steel is normally perforated by rust and corrosion in a few months. Can it be that a new stone age is approaching?

Soviet technologists are now working on a number of lines of research. New methods must be found for welding and cementing together stone articles so that the most complicated constructions, even whole machines, can be made from stone. New ways must be found to temper stone so that durable stone instruments can be manufactured; an expanded form of lightweight stone is needed and armoured forms of stone with iron or glass (and even stone with stone as described in Soviet patent No. 108042).

Let us turn now from stone to wood, which is both older and newer than stone.

### **Birchwood forty times better**

Wooden bearings, wooden gears, wooden. . . . We shall not allow ourselves to be carried away in rapturous enumeration of everything that can be made from pressed or synthetic impregnated wood. Wood is not stone; let us approach it critically and break it down as research technologists did at the Byelorussian Technical Institute. Wood is a fascinating material, cheaper than iron and easier to work. But it contains knots, is inflammable, absorbs moisture, is attacked by microbes and rots.

They say that houses made from larch trunks last for 900 years—just think of nine centuries! But wood must be modified if it is to be used for modern machine construction. The Byelorussian research workers knew that there are two main ways in which to treat timber; it can be impregnated with synthetic resin which makes it water and rot-proof but renders it more fragile; the most up-to-date modification is metallised wood impregnated in a vacuum with some cheap form of metallic alloy. The filling of the pores of wood with metal renders it less fragile and the fibres are made more solid. But it retains its love of moisture and swells when damp and shrinks when dry. They had a simple idea at the Byelorussian Technical Institute, or one that seems simple to us now. Their work has only just been published, but before this no one had thought of the triple combination of synthetic resins, wood and readily fusible cheap metal.

Once again we have a technical novelty that has no name. This absolutely new material, which was made for the first time in the world after several attempts at the Byelorussian Institute, can, according to the specialists who have examined it, be widely used in machine construction. This metal-wood-plastic, made from Russian birchwood, renders it three times more solid and tougher. It has forty times the heat conductivity of birchwood.

### **Tumblers that quell the waves**

From the oldest and most traditional materials let us now turn to the most ancient of constructions. When men first ventured out into the open sea they became anxious to find shelter for their cockle ships in ports and harbours. They built protecting moles, walls or dams with an entrance between them at openings in the shore, or they built a single wall along the shore jutting out to

sea. The stability of the protecting walls against the force of the waves depends on their solidity and weight, which make them exceeding costly to erect.

Can some new principle be used to find something to take their place? A research student in the Northern Hydrotechnical College has made a new kind of protective harbour using an inert breakwater. It is a structure that rolls. Civil engineering does not normally employ free moving structures. Revolving skyscrapers, rocking houses and free-moving sanatoria are built only in science fiction. In real life all buildings and structures are fixed and the only element of a building that moves freely is the weathervane. This breakwater rolls with the waves.

Imagine an enormous reinforced concrete cylinder. The thin casing is partly filled with sand ballast like a huge tumbler doll. Each cylinder is from 20 to 50 metres long. When the waves rise the cylinder rolls over and absorbs their energy. A wave is then set in motion on the reverse side of the breakwater to set the cylinder upright again. It has been calculated that a rolling breakwater can be set up at one-third of the cost of the traditional harbour. Experimental models are now undergoing laboratory tests.

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## Dialogue on the Soviet Short Story

COLIN BEARNE

(Mr. Bearne's article on *The Short Story in Soviet Fiction*, which was published in the first number in this volume, was discussed in an article by Iosif Grinberg, *Some Corrections, Factual and Fundamental*, published in the second number. This is Mr. Bearne's reply.)

I read Iosif Grinberg's reply to my article with great interest. I must bow before his knowledge of the facts as far as dates are concerned; indeed I envy him his access to reliable information. It would seem to me that in all other respects Mr. Grinberg is concerned with what he chooses to regard, probably quite rightly, as 'preconceived notions' and 'prejudices,' although I might look upon the absence of these latter from my views on Soviet literature as a weakness. It is on matters of interpretation, then, that I would take Mr. Grinberg to task, and since his original article has the tone at least of a point by point attack I feel bound to answer these points one by one.

I tried, apparently unsuccessfully as far as Mr. Grinberg was concerned, to indicate a development, a flowering of the short story as it were 'out from underneath' of the novel tradition, whether this latter were of the 19th or 20th century picaresque variety. Thus, while admitting that Sholokov's early stories *anticipated* the long novels which followed, I cannot accept the view that they are merely appendages to *Quiet flows the Don*. They are thoroughly independent productions, written before the novel had completely crystallised in the author's mind; neither has their immediacy and vividness of impact been reproduced, as indeed it cannot be, in the course of the epic novel. It should also be remembered that these short stories were what first attracted the reading public to Sholokov.

It was never my intention to suggest that no novels had been written during the 'twenties and 'thirties, and I would think it most unfortunate if that were the impression conveyed by certain passages in my article. Since the 'twenties have been mentioned there is the inevitable question of the evaluation of Il'f and Petrov and Yurii Olesha. We must review their contributions in retrospect, not as though we were readers in the 1920s. On what will Il'f and Petrov's lasting reputation be founded: on a variety of very clever sketches, which are, however, so highly topical that they already begin to seem slightly quaint? Or will they, as I think, be counted as masters of the picaresque novel in the Soviet idiom? Yurii Olesha is a similar case. My remark, quoted by Mr. Grinberg, is intended as a retrospective value assessment, not a quantitative judgment. I will admit that Olesha is a writer of many parts. Yet how great has his real impact been upon the Soviet drama? Will he not surely be remembered for his novel *Envy*? In this connection the materials which I have consulted (The stenographic reports of the First Congress of the Writers' Union of the USSR, Moscow, 1934), do not show Olesha making a great deal of reference to *Envy* and certainly nothing of a directly explanatory kind. In fact his whole speech is couched in singularly evasive, undefined terms. Mr. Grinberg's remarks in this context about 'a new element of free, graceful, dynamic composition, etc.,' are extremely interesting. One would dearly love to know whether this technique originated with Olesha, and how it developed subsequently in Soviet literature.

We now come to the problem, which Mr. Grinberg leaves untackled, of whether a work such as Zoshchenko's *Golubaya Kniga* can in any sense be thought of as a novel. Regardless of tendency of content, and of whether or not Zoshchenko was 'helped by Maxim Gorky' (an irrelevant factor if ever there was one) I do not think the book is anything more than a grouping of impromptu sketches and anecdotes around a common theme, and it is certainly not a 'novel' in the sense in which both Mr. Grinberg and I have used the term earlier.

Mr. Grinberg goes on to present a very peculiar assessment of Isaac Babel. I really fail to understand his term 'thoroughbred' short story writer. Are we to understand that Babel is more of a thoroughbred than, say, Zoshchenko or Olesha? Is Mr. Grinberg making a judgment based on a purely stylistic appraisal? I think perhaps the latter is the only possible solution, since in other respects there is nothing about Babel's two collections of stories which would make them in any way different from works by the other authors. They too are groups of stories with a quite obvious common narrator. True the settings are very different as between *Red Cavalry* and *Odessa Tales*, but Mr. Grinberg's tantalisingly cryptic remarks do not show what I think is a common preoccupation on the part of the author, namely a search for values in an unstable world, an exploration of the balance between right and might, violence and beauty in human life. No, no, the 'thoroughbred' does not appear until, perhaps, Andrei Platonov, until stories that are truly independent entities, and not artificially demarcated parts of a longer book with a central subject—a physical as well as metaphysical subject. Many readers must have enjoyed, each in their own way, *Odessa Tales*, and it would be interesting to hear more about what Mr. Grinberg considers to be the 'subject' of these tales.

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Alas! We now approach the vexed and storm-tossed period of the 1930s. The difference in our attitudes to the first two writers mentioned by Mr. Grinberg (Katayev and Gorbatov) is very interesting. I will accept the 'correction' that both writers produced just as much after 1930 as they had done before. In both cases, however, and in that of Katayev in particular, Mr. Grinberg must be aware of a distinct change in tone after, say, 1931. I must admit to finding the travologue-journalese productions which appeared after this date infinitely less attractive than the warm flavour of human sympathy with which preceding works had been imbued. It is perhaps this point more than any other which illustrates the full enormity of the gap which separates Mr. Grinberg and myself, and it is an ideological gap.

I will not deny what is styled the 'emergence' of the writers listed at this period. Indeed the first three in Mr. Grinberg's list are relatively well known in English translation. Everything that is said about these writer and the ones in the succeeding list, at least as far as literary capabilities are concerned, is perfectly acceptable. What concerns me is, as before, the quality of their productions, in a retrospective assessment. If we are to discuss what was actually published by these writers in the 'thirties rather than what was written, then there is a low artistic merit and lower level of human interest in this material, a result possibly of the wilfully wrong-headed definition of Socialist Realism current at the time. There can be no comparison with later writings of the writers mentioned, even of those who did not survive the war.

In the case of Aleksei Tolstoi I stand corrected by Mr. Grinberg, a correction which I accept almost without reservation. I do so since I am not prepared here to go into a discussion of the merits of the various sections of *Road to Calvary* (where has the title *Ordeal* come from?).

For the remainder of Mr. Grinberg's 'corrections' I have very little to say. I accept his addition to my lists. I had tried only to keep the lists within the powers of endurance of the English lay reader. Mr. Grinberg is also entirely right to stress the increasing importance of writers of short stories who do not come from the central, or Russian speaking areas of the USSR. The field here is very little covered by research in the West, and I would accept Mr. Grinberg's guidance as to outstanding figures.

The concluding sections of the article are what I assume Mr. Grinberg considers to be of a 'fundamental' nature. I find them in some ways puzzling and in others annoying. Allowing for the possibility that what he has to say may have been edited considerably, it is surely most unsatisfactory and needs to be cleared up by the kind of dialogue which I hope may now take place. Since Mr. Grinberg avows an interest in analysing the works of individual authors, perhaps he would like to discuss in the future my predilections which he so coyly sets to one side.

Our concentration should really be directed at Mr. Grinberg's penultimate paragraph, since this seems to me the crux of any future discussions, something which can be approached without the quaint mystification of 'certain problems of a theoretical nature.' I agree absolutely that one aspect of the craft of the short story is the dependence on the skilful use of compressed narrative techniques, but this should not delude one into thinking of short stories as compressed novels. I would thus prefer to think of the short story

as a self-sufficient art form, and a genre which has its own *raison d'être* and is not necessarily 'an ally of the novel.' I would like to hear Mr. Grinberg further on the subject of 'epic charge' as I have a suspicion that he may be talking of a feature which is not peculiar to the Soviet short story, but is part of a wider, European tradition. Mr. Grinberg is ardent in his defence of the 'true facts.' Over and above the purely physical and chronological factors involved, I wonder if such a term has any place in something as speculative as literary criticism?

It is unfortunate that one of Mr. Grinberg's most interesting statements should also be for me one of the most confusing. The interrelation between the various art forms in literature is indeed a fascinating subject for study, and one which I should very much like to see continued in any dialogue. I would ask Mr. Grinberg to expand what he means by 'in terms not of mere classification but of ideology and artistic expression.' Is not this kind of vagueness likely to lead away from the 'true facts?'

An even more fascinating subject for study is the relationship between the various literary genres and the mass-media. Mr. Grinberg will find, I think, that the gradual erosion in popularity and influence of the traditional novel form will be directly in proportion to the increase in influence of the visual mass media. The novel, and I am not now talking of pulp literature, will alter subtly, perhaps being refined in new literature to the length of the *povest* or *novella*. Hence my phrase 'growing out from under the novel.' Thus far my reasoning is very incomplete and I would welcome a reasoned challenge that would prompt me further to deliberate.

(EDITORIAL NOTE: A number of readers have asked that some details about the authors of articles should be given in those cases when they are not widely known. Iosif Lvovich Grinberg, born in 1906, is a graduate of Leningrad University literature department, and has written a great deal mainly on Soviet poetry though in recent years he has been writing a series of articles on the modern short story in journals like *Znamya*, *Moskva*, *Neva* and *Literaturnaya Gazeta*. We shall try whenever space and information permit to give these details about other authors.)

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## English books for Russian children

NATALYA SHERESHEVSKAYA

(adapted from a translation by E. Petrovsky)

The publication of Russian translations of English children's books is a fine old tradition. A much wider range of authors is available today, editions run into six figures and they now appear in the languages of many of the peoples of the Soviet Union. New editions and reprints of such books as Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*, Stevenson's *Treasure Island* and Kipling's stories have come out every year over the last three decades, in a total print of 3 million copies.

*Detskaya Literatura* (Children's Literature), which issues almost all these books, is one of the largest publishing houses. It was founded more than 30 years ago on the initiative of Maxim Gorky, and publishes books for readers between the ages of 2 and 17. Over 700 titles are issued each year and English authors firmly occupy first place amongst the works of foreign literature.

'We appreciate the sense of humour and healthy attitude towards life in these books' is the comment of Alexander Anikst, who is a Soviet expert on English literature.

Among the books that have a long-standing popularity with young readers in the Soviet Union are the dozen or so Nursery Rhymes translated by Samuil Marshak and Kornei Chukovsky, folk tales like *Jack and the Beanstalk* and *The Well of World's End*, Lewis Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland* and *Alice through the Looking-Glass*, A. A. Milne's *Winnie the Pooh*, *The Complete Nonsense* of Edward Lear, James Barrie's *Peter Pan*, P. Travers's *Mary Poppins*, and *Just-So Stories* and *Mowgli* by Rudyard Kipling.

### **Children write to their heroes**

Russian children not only love to read these books but play the part of the leading characters and name their pet toys after them. They also write letters to *Detskaya Literatura* and to Dom Detskoy Knigi (the children's bookshop which studies the tastes of the young reading public) giving their impressions of what they have read. One letter sent by a 5-year-old from Saratov reads: 'Dear Winnie the Pooh, I would like to tell you something. You didn't discover the North Pole. It's only a pole. There is no East or West pole, but there is a South one. . . .'

Most of these young correspondents ask for a sequel to one of the stories to be printed and sometimes they even make up continuations of their own.

### **The most popular of English authors**

Donald Bisset comes top. His books have appeared in Ukrainian, Georgian and Byelorussian, as well as in Russian. His individual stories illustrated by his own drawings have been published in *Detskaya Literatura* magazine and the *Pionerskaya Pravda* and his works have featured in radio and television broadcasts. Jan Bussell and Ann Hogarth's *Muffin*, and Leila Berg's *Chunky's Adventures* and *Little Pete Stories*, have risen in the popularity charts lately.

Adventure books are the favourite reading of the older boys and girls who love to read about geographical discoveries and travel. Such stories are published in editions of 300,000 copies of some 20 volumes. Stories like *Robinson Crusoe*, *Gulliver's Travels*, Raphael Sabatini's *Captain Blood* and *The Fortunes of Captain Blood*, or Conan Doyle's *The Memoirs of Sherlock Holmes* are published in special editions for the 12 to 17-year-olds with an introductory article by a literary critic, historian or scientist and a special commentary.

Translations are commissioned from the best available people. Lewis Carroll's books present special difficulties and are the hardest to translate into Russian. What is familiar to young English boys and girls almost from birth has to be explained if it is to be understood by the young Russian

reader. Even so the puns, innuendos, allegories, similes and metaphors lose some of their point.

Samuil Marshak once made a remarks which has become an aphorism: 'Literature needs not only writers of talent but readers of talent also.' Russian language editions of books by English authors are sold out soon after publication which reflects the quality of the young Russian-reading public.

(This article was accompanied by a series of splendid photographs of various jacket and plate designs for Russian editions of English children's books—we regret that the expense prevents us from reproducing them but they are available for loan from the Society for anyone interested.)

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## Where silence reigns

MIKHAIL PROROVNER

*Novosti Press Agency*

Soviet speleology began ten years ago when the Speleotourism Federation was set up in August, 1959. This does not mean to say that no one had been exploring caves in the Soviet Union before then. Various expeditions had produced reports on underground formations as far back as the end of the eighteenth century. The first explored caves were the Kapova and Kungurskaya in the Ural Mountains, the Balaganskaya on the Angara river, the Proval Cave in the Caucasus and the Verteba in Podolia. These explorations were carried out in an haphazard and amateurish way. There were, for example, only a few dozen rough descriptions of caves and sinks in such an ideal karstic region as the Crimea.

The careful study of the geological structure of the country and systematic research into underground caves began only after the Revolution. The first expedition for the exploration of caves and deep sinks went to the Crimea in 1927. Mountaineering began to develop at this time on a large scale. This was essential for the serious exploration of deep sinks and caves. The technological methods for mountaineering and speleology are very much alike.

There was a rapid development of speleology after the Second World War. Amateur clubs were formed in a number of towns, including Moscow, Perm, Krasnoyarsk, Sverdlovsk, Lvov, Ternopol. Tbilisi, Leningrad, Novosibirsk, which were united into the Speleotourism Federation ten years ago. The address of the Federation is 42 Lenin Prospekt, Moscow. The Federation meets in plenary session twice a year. Work is carried on by the Presidium and its standing committees covering routes, qualifications, training, and propaganda. All its organisations work on a voluntary basis.

Only about one hundred caves and sinks had been explored before 1959, whereas more than 700 have been studied in the Crimea alone during the following decade. There are now more than 50 speleological clubs with a total membership of about 15,000.

There is an elaborate system for training cave explorers. They first receive pre-camp training at special schools organised by the clubs. After completing the school training members are sent to camps in the Caucasus, Crimea

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or the Sayans. Over 500 people are trained at these camps during the summer. Those who qualify receive a certificate of tourism-speleology which entitles them to begin cave exploration with a group.

These training courses and the organisation of explorations by the Federation have had good effect. A few sinks at depths below 300 metres have been discovered in the last two years alone. The first to be explored was Nazarovskaya (350 metres) and later the Geographical and Shkolnaya caves (both 310 metres deep) were explored. This was followed by the exploration of the Oktyabrskaya, which is 400 metres deep and one of the deepest sinks in the world. The longest cave labyrinth in the world, called the Optimisticheskaya, has been explored by Lvov speleologists as far as 30 kilometres. There is another giant cave called Ozerneya which is over 26 kilometres in length.

Most cave exploration is done by amateurs who are not directly interested in penetrating to great depths. They are interested, for example, in studying the underground fauna along with biologists. They discovered the world's northernmost Stone Age hunting camp in the Polshaya Medvezhaya Cave on the Pechora river; paleolithic drawings were found by Alexander Ryumin, a zoologist, when exploring the Kapovaya Cave in the Ural mountains. Speleologists set up a hydrochemical laboratory in the Crimea in 1961-68 at which they discovered the role played by condensation in the formation of subsoil water streams.

These expeditions have made it possible for improvements to be made in the techniques of exploration. New equipment has been designed and improved methods of exploration worked out appropriate for particular formations. Soviet speleologists have made contact with their colleagues

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in other countries and took part in the Rodon expedition in Bulgaria in 1964-66. They were represented at the special symposium in Yugoslavia and have supplied information about the Crimean and Caucasian caves to foreign colleagues.

A number of the most beautiful caves in the Soviet Union have been declared State preserves, protected by government order at the initiative of speleological and scientific organisations.

Boris Paton, the President of the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences, characterised the activities of Soviet speleologists in the following words: 'Your explorations are a valuable contribution to the study of geological structure and hydro-geological conditions of the karstic development in the Ukraine. The Presidium of the Academy of Sciences will provide the utmost encouragement to your important initiative in promoting the fruitful co-operation of scientists and sportsmen in the exploration of cave formations.'

(This article was supplied by Novosti Press Agency in response to a request by the Society arising out of a note in *Slavonika*, the journal of the University of Nottingham Russian Department, inserted by some caving enthusiasts at the University.)

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# Foreign Language Teaching

RUTH ADLER

Many years ago I was asked to write a short article about the teaching of foreign languages in the school where I used to work in a small town some twenty miles from Moscow. It was duly published in the *Anglo-Soviet Journal*. This year I've had some opportunities of making first-hand observations in England. I hope the readers of this *Journal* may find some of them interesting.

Though I had come to England as a private visitor thanks to my friends' efforts and hospitality, I was able to visit a number of educational establishments in England (mainly in the London area). Wherever I went I was always most interested in the system of teaching foreign languages.

The aims of teaching foreign languages at schools were not similar in both countries some time ago. The English system was more interested in the development of reading and writing capabilities and the emphasis was on a written examination. The pupils were supposed to be able to read a considerable number of literary works in the original and write a dictation, translation and some sort of a literary composition in the native language. An oral examination took place after a written one and its role was not very important.

At the same time the British Council supervised and helped develop the teaching of English as a second language in many parts of the world with the aim of giving the students some command of spoken English for oral communication.

This field of work was fairly well known in the Soviet Union, where the text books by Eckersley, West and Hornby, dictionaries and reference books by Hornby, books on the methodology of teaching English as a foreign language are highly appreciated.

The aim of teaching foreign languages at school in the Soviet Union in the past ten-fifteen years is usually defined as a practical one, with the purpose of giving the pupils the ability to speak a foreign language and read popular science and political literature in the original. The emphasis is made on the oral command of the language and the examination is oral.

There are different types of schools in the USSR, some of them where the pupils begin to study a foreign language in the second form (at the age of eight)—so called special schools—that give a fairly decent command of the spoken language plus the courses of literature, history and possibly some other subjects (their list may differ from school to school) in this foreign language.

Recently in Britain the aim of teaching foreign languages has begun to change, as a foreign language has been introduced into some primary schools, and the problem of teaching English to immigrant children has become very acute for some parts of Great Britain. It is very important for immigrant children to master spoken English, otherwise they are not able to learn at school and their progress there is considerably delayed.

It appeared to be necessary to organize a centre in London which would be able to supply and co-ordinate information on teaching foreign languages; this centre (which is at 72 State House, High Holborn St.), I visited several times, and was very much impressed with its comprehensive library of books, tapes, records, slides, film-strips and other visual aids. The staff of this centre, though not very numerous, is very competent and efficient; they organise lectures, give individual and group consultations to all teachers who come to that centre from different parts of Great Britain and even abroad. I would like to thank them very much for their kindness and a genuine wish to help their Soviet colleague in all respects. The work of this centre seems to a certain extent similar to the work carried out by the Moscow Foreign Languages Library (though it is only a very small portion of the duties of the latter). Besides this library, every republic and city in the USSR has a special Institute for Advanced Studies in various subjects for those teachers who have degrees and are working at a school but who want to refresh their knowledge and teaching skill in their particular subject. Every institute of this kind has its own Foreign Language Department. The latter runs compulsory courses (every five years for teachers of all subjects in the Soviet Union) and optional refresher courses, organises demonstration lessons in their own language laboratories and schools, arranges individual and group consultations, and lectures on various aspects of teaching foreign languages. The difference between Great Britain and the Soviet Union is that in our country some of the refresher courses are compulsory. But, in my opinion, this does no harm.

It was worth learning that some universities in Great Britain have special government grants for various projects in the field of teaching English to immigrant children, e.g., the West Indian language project at the University of Birmingham, and the Schools' Council Project for teaching English to immigrants at the University of Leeds Institute of Education.

In the Soviet Union, the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the USSR also has a foreign language department which carries out its own research work on the problems of the methodology of teaching, and co-ordinates the work of numerous teachers' training colleges of the USSR in this field.



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Members of affiliated organisations are entitled to services which include the supply of information, visual aids, use of the reference library, recorded and sheet music, as well as the facilities provided by the libraries of the Universities of Essex and Surrey, with which we have special arrangements. The Visual Aids and Information Departments charge according to the time spent on selection or research.

A number of new 16-mm Soviet films, including Russian language teaching, with good quality sound tracks, can be supplied by ETV Films, 2, Doughty Street, London, WC1 (Tel: 01-405 0395), and by Contemporary Films, 55, Greek Street, London, W1 (Tel: 01-437 9392), with whom the Society has special arrangements whereby affiliated organisations receive 20 per cent discount on Soviet films hired. Additional special rates are available for serial bookings. (On booking films, organisations should apply direct to ETV or Contemporary Films stating that they are affiliated). Reduced rates are also available for members wishing to join the Paris Pullman Club, Paris Pullman Cinema, 65, Drayton Gardens, London, SW10 (Tel: FREmantle 5898). Application should be made direct to the Club Secretary.

The Society can arrange for British or Soviet speakers to give lectures or talks. Special assistance is given to visitors to the USSR wishing to visit institutions and meet specialists, either on specialist tours organised by the Society or to supplement independently arranged visits to the Soviet Union. Members of affiliated organisations are given preference for the limited number of places available on Russian language courses (including scholarships) in the Soviet Union. There are facilities for meeting Soviet specialists and lecturers visiting Britain, and special efforts are made to affiliated organisations outside London to receive Soviet visitors.

Priority will be given to affiliated organisations to receive a limited number of invitations to selective functions arranged by the Society, such as special receptions, etc.

We should like to add, however, that the Society exists not only for the benefit of members, but also in the wider context to help to improve cultural and scientific relations between Britain and the Soviet Union, towards which subscriptions can play an important part.

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Due to the multinational structure of the Soviet Union, we share with Great Britain the problem of teaching the main language of the country—the Russian language—as the second language in all Soviet and autonomous republics, regions and territories where the teaching is carried out in the native language. But this may become the subject of another article.

I cannot boast of visiting very many schools in the course of my stay in England, so I will be wrong if I assume that I have the right to pass judgment on the teaching of foreign languages in this country. But the lessons of French, German, Spanish, and Russian which I did visit have revealed how many problems we have in common. In many cases the schools here were able to organise and use language laboratories. However, I also observed that the main problem is not to install the laboratory equipment but to prepare suitable material to make the equipment work with maximum efficiency. And the work in this field is just in the initial stages all over the world.

In both countries considerable attention is being paid to making foreign language lessons more lively, and to giving pupils more opportunities to master the language by means of oral speech exercises, and of practising it in everyday speech units.

And with all due respect to my British colleagues, I must say that though the pupils in the Soviet Union are in a more difficult position, in that they very seldom have any opportunity of going abroad and practising the language with the native speakers of that language, the results are not worse than I could see in this country.

It was very pleasant to see that so many people here are very much interested in the Soviet Union; they want to learn the Russian language, study its literature and social institutions, and understand its people.

Several times I was unexpectedly addressed in Russian by young people who have learned it in Cambridge, Nottingham, and other places. It shows that wider contacts among teachers of both countries would be interesting and fruitful, as they will help to promote mutual understanding and friendship between our nations.

Once I was invited by the publishing firm, Mary Glasgow and Baker Ltd., of 140 Kensington Church Street, to have a look at the books and numerous magazines which they publish to help those who study foreign languages in various countries, at different stages of knowledge. I was very happy to see among their publications the Russian magazine *Kometa*, which is published nine times a year and contains interesting information about life in the USSR in very simple Russian, with authentic Russian photographs and pictures, songs, verses, and a very comprehensive Russian-English vocabulary in each issue. (They have similar publications in English, French, German, etc.) I have seen the catalogues and publications of Longmans, Oxford University Press, and other publishing houses which are well known in the Soviet Union.

In the Soviet Union we also have several publishing houses (Prosveshcheniye—Enlightenment, Vysshaya Shkola—Higher School, and others) that publish textbooks, readers, conversation books, etc. for students of foreign languages. The Prosveshcheniye Publishing House has a special

Audio-Visual Aids department and they supply schools of various types with records and tapes, film strips and slides, wall charts, tables and models, aiming to provide better opportunities for practice in spoken English both at class and at home. A revised edition of the school text book for the fifth form (the beginner's course) is published together with a set of records (or tapes), filmstrips, picture charts, and models. In future, educational films will also be provided together with the textbooks. And we hope that all our school textbooks from now on will follow the same pattern.

As the price of records, film strips, etc., is very moderate in our country, such materials can be bought by all schools that need them. The only trouble is that teachers must be taught how to use them in the best way.

Our weeklies published in English, French and German (Moscow News—English and French editions, Neues Deutschland—New Germany) have special pages for those who study these languages. The stories, jokes, songs and photographs published by these weeklies are very popular, and the teachers use them both for class and club (optional) work.

While I was staying in England, I often followed the BBC lessons of German, French, and other languages broadcast for school pupils and adults on Radio 4. I know that the BBC broadcasts lessons in foreign languages on television as well, but I did not happen to see any of them.

Moscow Radio also has radio programmes to help those who study foreign languages, and gives television lessons. So far, the radio programmes do not satisfy teachers of foreign languages. They are meant to develop mostly listening skills, and though they do give some interesting material about a country, its life, customs and traditions, they are not lessons, but programmes, and that is the trouble; they do not give enough opportunities for practising the language as the BBC lessons do. But they do help to arouse interest in foreign countries in general and in language learning in particular, so they have large audiences.

Our television lessons are mainly for extra-mural students of various technical colleges (one foreign language is a compulsory subject in all higher education establishments of the Soviet Union), and for children of pre-school age. They are regular lessons, and many viewers follow the courses. Some of the viewers who have tape recorders tape the lessons and play the tape afterwards for extra practice. Incidentally, the same is done by many school teachers with our foreign language radio programmes.

In this way, we can say that the teaching of foreign languages in the USSR and England has many similar problems, and that the approach to the solution of these problems reveals that the general trend in both countries is in the same direction. I am sure that teachers of foreign languages in England will be able to find a lot of fruitful and interesting ideas in Soviet publications on the methodology of teaching, and vice-versa.

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# Translating the Criminal Code\*

YURI SDOBNIKOV

(a translator in the Progress Publishing House, specialising in legal literature—who translated “*The Fundamentals of Civil Legislation*”).

In his analysis Professor Berman brings a formidable weight of scholarship to bear and no one who is concerned with this complicated subject could fail to be interested in what he has to say. My own particular interest in the book was as a translator of Soviet legal literature, and since my remarks in this review tend to be mainly critical, I should like to make it clear that they are not intended as an attack but rather as a small contribution to the pioneer work Professor Berman and his colleague are doing in a difficult field.

In his Introduction, Professor Berman says that when in doubt he and his collaborator preferred ‘a more literal translation, despite the awkwardness that this sometimes involves. And when the Soviet style is itself unwieldy and ambiguous, we have not sought to improve it’ (p.132). The translators set out to give the reader not only the meaning but also the flavour of the Russian text, and have, on the whole, I think, succeeded in doing this.

Professor Berman’s statement of principle is highly important, because anyone intent on ‘throwing out all the nonsense’ is liable to end up with very little of the original indeed. Conversely, an effort to convey the flavour of the original may leave the translator in the end with much more than he had bargained for. Because of the differences between two languages like Russian and English, something is inevitably lost, and something else inadvertently gained in the rendering. So ‘no matter how a translator may strive, the Russian text will inevitably have a different “ring”.’ (ibid.).

In translation, as in everything else, the true answer seems to lie somewhere in between the two extremes. However,

this is not in any sense an arithmetical mean. The middle in fact depends, in every instance, on the actual similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages, and seems to run a zigzag, rather than a straight, course between the two extremes. It is tempered at various points by the necessities of idiom and usage, and Professor Berman locates one of these at once by converting the Russian present tense of the code provisions into the future imperative characteristic of American and English law. Thus, ‘Theft . . . shall be punished’ (instead of ‘Theft . . . is punished’). There is, of course, a loss of flavour, but it is the kind of flavour that if consistently conveyed would make the translation a shade too exotic.

There is also the importance of attitude. As a legal authority, Professor Berman appears to take rather condescending view of Soviet law, and this inevitably seeps through into the thinking of Professor Berman the translator. Instead of explaining the Russian use of the present tense, and the English of the future imperative, by usage—surely the logical linguistic explanation—we find him saying that the conversion has to be made because ‘Russian is weak in future tenses, and uses the present tense in legal provisions to convey a future imperative’ (ibid.). Well, depending on how patriotic you feel at the time you could say with equal reason that ‘English is weak in present tenses, and uses a special future tense to convey the meaning of legal provisions, whereas Russian being terribly strong in present tenses does not need a special tense for that purpose.’

To be more concrete, however, the very laudable intention to convert the present tense of the Russian into the future imperative of the English is forgotten in the translation of the very first article, which reads: ‘The RSFSR Criminal Code has as its task . . . the RSFSR Criminal Code determines . . . and establishes . . .’, instead of ‘shall

\* Soviet Criminal Law and Procedure. The RSFSR Codes. Introduction and Analysis by Harold J. Berman. Translation by Harold J. Berman and James W. Spindler. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1966, pp.501.

have as its task . . . shall determine . . . and shall establish.'

Paragraph one of Article 2 says: 'The RSFSR Criminal Code proceeds from the principles,' instead of 'shall proceed,' but paragraph two of the same article says: 'All-Union laws . . . shall be included . . .,' and paragraph three, 'The General Part of the Code shall extend. . . .'

From there on the future imperative is used pretty consistently until Article 20, where the present reappears again. We read: 'Punishment not only constitutes a chastisement for a committed crime but also has the purpose of correcting and re-educating . . .,' instead of 'Punishment shall not only constitute a chastisement . . . but shall also have the purpose. . . .'. Paragraph two of the same article says: 'Punishment does not have the purpose of causing physical suffering . . .,' instead of 'Punishment shall not have the purpose. . . .'

The present is also used to render the past. Article 11 says: 'A person shall not be subject to criminal responsibility who at the time of committing a socially dangerous act is in a state of nonimputability, that is, cannot realise the significance. . . .'. The Russian has the past: 'litso . . . nakhodilos . . .,' and 'ne moglo otdavat sebe otchyota.'

Besides this muddle over present and future there are other tense problems that are not very well handled. Where the Russian uses the perfective form of the verb, with the affix *-ush-*, signifying completion of the action, as in 'litsa sovershivshiye,' the natural rendering is surely a present perfect, as 'persons who have committed.' This we find in Article 1: ' . . . the punishments applicable to persons who have committed crimes.' But then 'litsa sovershivshiye' is rendered as 'persons who commit' up to Article 5, where they again become 'who have committed'; by Article 11, they are back to 'who commit.' This is certainly no way to convey the style of the original.

The definite article is used just as haphazardly. Thus, 'sud' is designated variously as 'a court' and 'the court,' when the Russian context is exactly the same, as in 'sud mozhet smyagchit nakazaniye,' the rendering is 'a court may mitigate the punishment,' in one case, and in another 'the court may mitigate.' In fact, up to Article 27, 'a court' seems to be the rule, at which

point 'the court' crops up, and then keeps popping up here and there, sometimes in the same article where 'a court' is used. Thus, Article 27, paragraph one, has 'the court,' paragraph two, 'the court,' and paragraph three, 'a court'; Article 28 has 'the court'; but Article 29 goes back to 'a court,' Article 31 has 'a court,' and Article 33, 'the court.'

Article 66 says: ' . . . for the purpose of subverting or weakening the Soviet authority' (sovetskuyu vlast'), but Article 70 says: ' . . . for the purpose of subverting or weakening (?) Soviet authority.' The definite article comes and goes, but if 'Sovetskaya vlast' is taken as a synonym for 'the Soviet regime,' or 'the Soviet government,' surely there is no excuse for dropping the definite article.

This is a most baffling way of conveying the style of the original, which the Introduction says is sometimes "unwieldy and ambiguous". The Russian happens to be very clear and smooth in all these cases.

There are one or two examples that qualify for Fowler's *Modern English Usage*, not to say the *New Yorker's* 'How's That Again Department'. Take the first sentence in Article 24, paragraph one, which says: 'In assigning punishment for a person who has not attained the age of eighteen years before the commission of a crime, the term of deprivation of freedom may not exceed ten years'. This kind of sentence is perhaps excusable in a dialogue between two excited persons, but not in a legal text.

Article 23 says: 'Women who are pregnant at the time of the commission of a crime or at the moment of rendering judgment may not be condemned to death.' This could imply that the women in question are empowered to render judgment in their own case and, to make matters worse, the translators add: 'The death penalty may not be applied to a woman who is pregnant at the moment of executing the judgment.' Is this a strange case of *hara-kiri*? Not at all. The Russian says: 'k momentu vynesenia prigovora' and 'k momentu ispolnenia prigovora,' which should be translated as 'at the moment judgment is rendered' and 'at the moment judgment is executed,' if the absurdity is to be avoided.

There are other cases of inconsistency. In Article 5 'litsa bez grazhdanstva' is

rendered as 'persons without citizenship,' although the Glossary of Legal Terms (a very necessary annex, let me add) says 'stateless person'—'litso bez grazhdanstva' (p.471).

Though these may, at first sight, appear to be minor flaws, they mar a work which embodies so much scholarship.

There are more serious instances where the translators have either misread the Russian or have got the wrong emphasis. Article 6, paragraph three, says in Russian: 'Zakon, ustanavliva-yushchiiy nakazuyemost deyania ili usilivayuschchiiy nakazaniye, obratnoi sily ne imeyet.' The translation is: 'A law establishing the punishability of an act or increasing the punishment for it shall not have retroactive force.' Actually, the Russian simply means 'or increasing a punishment. . . .' The provision is thus arbitrarily narrowed in the translation.

Similar faults of emphasis occur in Article 4, paragraph two; Article 7, paragraph two; Article 10, paragraph one; and Article 27, paragraph two. In all these instances the English version is not a strict translation but an interpretation, even a rehash of the original.

One term which has strictly no bearing on the law at all is thrown in by the translators towards the end of the Introduction. They say: 'Only occasionally are there examples of 'spectacle-wiping' (to use a Russian colloquialism) . . . ' (p.139). The colloquialism is presumably 'ochkovtiratelstvo,' which strictly means cheating, and has nothing to do with 'spectacles' or 'wiping'. It is an old card-sharper's term, and the 'ochko' here is the 'pip' which is covered up on the trick card. This may seem irrelevant, but the translators' discussion of various lexical niceties of the Russian language, such as 'obshchestvo' and 'ob'yedineniye' (p.120), 'dokazyvat' (without considering 'dokazat' p.83), 'bezkhoziaistvennost' (p.58), 'sobstvennost' (p.35), 'prestupki' (instead of 'prostupki' (p.5), the dropping of endings in 'vybor(y)' (p.101), and 'uboi(a)' (p.130), leave a vague impression that they are not as sure of their ground in Russian as in law.

\* \* \*

The Introduction says that 'no matter how a translator may strive the Russian text will inevitably have a different ring. Sometime that ring sounds just as

strange in the ears of Soviet citizens not trained in law as it does in American ears' (p.132). The translator should obviously do nothing to add to the strangeness of the ring in American or English ears. But a too-literal approach does just that.

Professor Berman and his collaborator have taken care to avoid using words that convey different images. Thus, they use 'judicial consideration of the case' and 'judicial investigation' instead of 'trial' and 'hearing'; 'presentation of the accusation' and 'conclusion to indict' instead of 'arraignment' and 'indictment'; 'negligent homicide' instead of 'manslaughter,' etc. (p.131). These points are well argued and the translators build up a strong case for doing what they have done. But what could be the purpose of saying: 'Infringing the life of a policeman'? Why not say 'an attempt on the life of'? ('posyagatel'stvo na zhizn' . . .'). Why say: 'shift the obligation of proof to the accused'—'perelagat ob'yazannost dokazyvaniya na obvinyayemogo'? 'Ob'yazannost' has never been 'obligation', though it could be rendered as 'responsibility' or 'duty'; 'obligation' is, after all, an English legal term which certainly conveys a very 'different image' from the Russian.

This strange choice of words includes 'an *honourable* attitude to labour' (why not honest?); '*specially* provided in the Code' (why not expressly?); 'the *personality* of the convicted person' (instead of 'the character'); '*voluntary* refusal to commit a crime' (doesn't refusal already imply free will?); 'the *organisation of work* of persons freed from places of detention,' meaning provision of jobs, placement; 'deprivation of freedom' (instead of 'liberty,' which, after all, means being deprived of the liberty to come and go as you please, being the narrower framework within the larger context of freedom); 'persons who serve their term . . . in prison under conditions of exemplary conduct' (is it the conduct of the prison officials? It could very well be in the English, but the Russian says: 'pri uslovii ikh primernogo povedeniya'—a perfectly normal Russian phrase); 'deprivation of the right to *occupy certain offices*' (instead of 'right to hold specified offices'—this adds a sort of sinister meaning to the perfectly ordinary business of holding an office). These are all examples of a certain primitivism in the choice of



words which ignores English idiom or usage, and certainly makes the Russian sound 'unwieldy.'

One way of conveying style, in this kind of text, is to be consistent in translating identical turns of the phrase. Let us say that two Russian paragraphs start identically as follows:—

- (1) Litsam, otbyvshim . . . , and
- (2) Litsam, zlostno narushashchim . . . (Article 24).

Why start the one as 'persons who serve . . . ' and the other as 'In the case of persons who maliciously violate. . . ?' This quite apart from the fact that to say 'in the case of', without there actually being any case under discussion, is, I believe, wrong in legal terms.

To show what I mean by failure to convey the style of the original I must quote one paragraph of the Code in full together with the translation (Article 24):

'Trudoustroistvo lits, osvobozhdennykh iz mest lisheniya svobody, vozlagatsya na ispolnitelnye komitety mestnykh Sovetov deputatov trudyashchikhsya.' That is as lucid and balanced a sentence as you will find in any style of Russian writing. Here is the translation:

'The organisation of work of persons freed from places of deprivation of freedom shall be the responsibility of the executive committees of local Soviets of working people's deputies.'

I believe the reader could be given a better idea of the style of the Russian through greater fidelity to the requirements of English. By putting the logical subject in its natural place, at the beginning, by working in a verb in place of the noun, and by eliminating as many 'of's as possible, we arrive at the following:—

'It shall be the duty of the Executive Committees of local Soviets of Working People's Deputies to obtain work for persons released from places of deprivation of liberty.'

This is easier on the eye and ear, and certainly comes closer to the Russian than the first variant. Greater fidelity to English also happens to be greater fidelity to the Russian.

\* \* \*

Finally, let us consider three ways of rendering a concept from one language into another:

- (1) Verkhovny Sovet SSSR—*Verkhovny Sover SSSR* (The Supreme

Soviet of the USSR), as in the title of an official publication, name of a book, etc.

(2) Verkhovny Soviet SSSR—The Supreme Soviet of the USSR, as in the text of a book, which gives the general idea of the institution; and

(3) Verkhovny Soviet SSSR—The Soviet Parliament, as in an interpretation for the popular press or radio.

Surprisingly, for a work of this kind, Professor Berman uses all three. Thus, we have, in the same order as above:

(1) Sotsialisticheskaya zakonnost, and Soviet, instead of socialist legality, and Council, etc.:

(2) the bulk of the translation, where he avoids using 'sentence,' 'verdict,' 'trial,' 'burden of proof,' etc., as terms which have fixed meanings and are liable to mislead; and

(3) 'militia,' 'ssylka' and 'vysylka' are rendered as 'police,' 'exile' and 'banishment'—on the popular press level.

We have it on the authority of Earl Jowitt that both 'exile' and 'banishment' have long been obsolete in English law, but that the two are synonymous, and have this in common that 'in neither case does this country concern itself with where the person concerned may live provided only that he goes and keeps out of the realm' (The Dictionary of English Law, vol 1, p.201). What then are we to make of the following translation:—

Article 25. Exile (sic!) shall consist in the removal of a convicted person from the place of his residence, with obligatory settlement in a certain locality' . . .

Article 26. Banishment (sic!) shall consist in the removal of a convicted person from the place of his residence, with prohibition against living in certain localities.'

Considering the implication of 'going and keeping out of the realm' present in both exile and banishment, it would surely have been better to render them after the No. 1 pattern given above, i.e. to leave them as 'ssylka' and *vysylka*, which would have made more sense in the context of Articles 25 and 26.

Translating 'militia' as 'police' is like translating 'Verkhovny Soviet SSR' as 'The Soviet Parliament:' Professor Berman may feel this to be an equivalent, but what happens then to the principles set out in the Introduction?



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# SCR News

## PREMISES

At last the Society is housed in its new and larger premises at Brixton (for which a map and directions are printed on pages 4-5 of this number).

At semi-basement level alone, books from nearly four of the five floors at Tottenham Court Road are now on shelves, leaving the ground floor for the Visual Aid Department and Art Library and the first floor for administration. The extra space and its apportionment provides for vastly better and more efficient working conditions. In the meantime, contracts have now been exchanged for the sale of the old premises.

Members are welcome between 10 a.m. and 6 p.m. on weekdays. The main library will be open on Monday and Wednesday evenings until 9 p.m. but closed all day on Thursday, as from November 3rd.

The Mayor of Lambeth will be visiting the new premises in October.

## SCR AFFAIRS

### Council, Executive Committee and Editorial Board

Members of the new Executive Committee, elected at the first meeting of the new Council on 14th June, are listed at the front of the *Journal*. On Mr. Kessel's retirement as Chairman, Dr. Crome was unanimously elected as his successor and Mr. B. P. Pockney becomes a new Vice-Chairman in Dr. Crome's place. The Editor and Editorial Board were re-elected with the addition of a new member, Mr. Colin G. Bearne, lecturer at the University of Sussex and translator of Soviet short stories.

### SCR Delegation to the USSR (26th June-9th July, 1969)

Our newly-elected Chairman concentrated on Society business during his fourteen days in the Soviet Union, ranging from the organisation of next April's Russian Language Course at Goldsmith's College to exhibitions in both countries and special events in connection with the 100th anniversary of the birth of Lenin.

### Mr. Valerian Nesterov and Mr. Vladimir Chubarov

Both long-standing friends of the Society we wish them every success in their new posts. In their places we welcome *Mr. Anatoli Masko* as the new General Secretary of the USSR-GB Society in Moscow and *Mr. Aleksander Chikvaidze* who replaces Mr. Chubarov at the Cultural Department of the Soviet Embassy in London.

## PRESENTATION AND RECEPTION IN HONOUR OF MR. LIPMANN KESSEL

In appreciation of Mr. Kessel's outstanding contribution to the Society over many years, we are holding a reception on Friday evening, 31st October, at which a presentation by Ivor Montagu will be made. Further details are provided in the enclosed circular.

## LIBRARY

### Surrey University Library

A new agreement with Surrey University Library, on the same lines as that already in operation with Essex, has now been made. So far only pre-1968 newspapers and journals have been placed on loan to both libraries but already all the SCR material held by Essex has been classified, bound and shelved.

### Opening Hours of SCR Library, as from Monday, November 3rd, 1969

Monday	.....	10 a.m.—9 p.m.
Tuesday	.....	10 a.m.—6 p.m.
Wednesday	.....	10 a.m.—9 p.m.
Thursday	.....	Closed
Friday	.....	10 a.m.—6 p.m.

## SCR RUSSIAN LANGUAGE COURSES IN THE USSR

### 1969

Ann Simpson, who has just graduated at the Centre for Russian and East European Studies, Birmingham University, was the successful candidate nominated by the Society for the 10-Month Scholarship at Moscow State University where she began her studies in mid September.

Seven teachers of Russian attended the Month's Seminar at Moscow University, and nearly 100 under-graduates the Advanced Summer Schools at Moscow and Abramtsevo.

### 1970

Information on SCR and other courses is now available from the office.

## FILM SECTION

### Eisenstein Evening

On 13th August at Bowater House Cinema over 90 people enjoyed a foretaste of the film Norman Swallow and Grisha Aleksandrov are jointly making on Eisenstein's life and work. It was more like a peep into the cutting room, as our guest chairman, David Robinson, film critic of the *Financial Times*, stated. After excerpts from a wide range of the master's films, including his ploys as a London policeman, we were treated to some fascinating anecdotes recounted by Aleksandrov himself. Questions, it seemed, would have gone on well into the night had time permitted. The verdict—delightful entertainment, inimitably informative.

### Film Shows at Bowater House Cinema

Due to work involved in our move to new premises as well as redecoration of Bowater House Cinema, our film season will not open until 5th December. The following are the Friday dates on which there will be 35mm film shows at Bowater House. Details of films to be shown will be published in members' circulars.

Fridays: 5th December, 9th January, 6th February, 6th March, 17th April, 8th May, 5th June.

**100th ANNIVERSARY OF THE BIRTH OF LENIN,  
22nd APRIL, 1870-1970**

Not only in the USSR but throughout the world commemorative functions and varied events connected with different aspects of Lenin's life and work will be held, especially in the first part of 1970, sponsored by various organisations including UNESCO.

The Council of the SCR has decided to arrange a number of events in this country and, in particular, to assist educational and other bodies with photo-display material, film strips, and with speakers (British or Soviet) as requested.

It is obvious that our office cannot cope with organising as many events as members, especially those outside London, would like. We would welcome, therefore, the initiative of members, affiliated organisations and others in arranging such events, including lectures, exhibitions, film shows, etc. We can certainly provide the speakers, material and advice, provided that we have reasonable time and suggestions are made prior to firm bookings of halls, etc.

### **Book Exhibitions**

In association with Collet's Holdings Limited and Mezhnkiga, the Society is sponsoring a number of exhibitions. The major display of over 700 books will be at the National Book League from 2nd April to 11th April and will include important photographs, facsimile material, rare editions and proclamations. Smaller travelling exhibitions, including posters and stamps, will be held at a number of University and Public libraries between October and March, among which are the following:—

London—	The Tate Central Library, Brixton	Nov. 24-Dec. 4
	Finsbury Library	Dec. 15-Dec. 24
	Swiss Cottage Library	Nov. 2-Nov. 12
	Holborn Library	Dec. 15-Dec. 24
Birmingham—	University Library	Jan. 26-Feb. 5
Colchester—	Essex University Library	date to be announced
Leeds—	University Library	March 9-March 19
Manchester—	Central Library	Jan. 5-Jan. 15
Edinburgh—	University Library	Feb. 16-Feb. 26

*There will be an official opening and reception at the National Book League on April 2nd.*

### **Lenin in Film—April 6th, National Film Theatre**

A lecture on Lenin in both documentary and as portrayed in feature films, with film excerpts comparing and contrasting the two and illustrating the approach of different directors and actors, will be given by Ivor Montagu on Monday, April 6th, 8.30 p.m., at the National Film Theatre, in association with the British Film Institute. This will be the opening event of a week of films connected with Lenin.

## **Seminar**

A week-end seminar is being arranged (provisionally in Birmingham in April) with prominent specialists introducing selected aspects of Lenin's work.

*The Executive Committee is also considering the holding of a commemorative lecture followed by a reception for the benefit of members.*

## **Soviet speakers**

Talks on Lenin by Soviet speakers can be arranged for schools, clubs or any organisations interested, by writing direct to: Mr. A. Mogilevchik, Embassy of the USSR, 13, Kensington Palace Gardens, London, W.8.

## **Photo-display and Visual Aids**

These can be obtained from the Visual Aids Department on loan. It is also hoped to have available a selection of larger exhibitions.

## **'Anglo-Soviet Journal'**

The April number will be a special Lenin Centenary edition.

## **The Bolsheviks—Unity Theatre**

Provisional plans of Unity Theatre, in co-operation with the Society, for April, 1970, include the presentation of *The Bolsheviks*, adapted and translated into English by Robert Daglish from the play by Mikhail Shatrov, currently running at the Sovremennik Theatre in Moscow.

## **VISITING SOVIET LECTURERS**

We are expecting (end of October or early November) two Soviet specialists for whom we are arranging lecture tours mainly for schools and teacher-training colleges. Their subjects are:

1. Comparative problems of Secondary Education, including the problems of school-leavers.
2. Teaching of British History in Soviet Secondary Schools.

*Suggestions for visits, talks and discussions will be welcome.*

## **BALLET TEACHERS' SEMINAR, LENINGRAD**

December 30th, 1969-January 9th, 1970

In association with the Vaganova School in Leningrad, the Society is sponsoring the first Seminar in the USSR for foreign teachers of ballet. Only a few places are still available for numbers are strictly limited to ensure the high standard of the Seminar. Any interested teachers of ballet must contact the secretary as soon as possible for further details.

## **DINNER DANCE, ROYAL LANCASTER HOTEL, NOVEMBER 11th**

In association with Frames Tours, the Society is holding a dinner-dance for 800 Soviet tourists who will be visiting London as a part of their cruise on the new Soviet liner the *Shota Rustaveli*.

Members and friends interested in attending should contact the secretary.

# Book Reviews

**Russian Peasants and Soviet Power: a Study of Collectivisation:** by M. Lewin. Preface by A. Nove. (Allen & Unwin, 1968, 539 pp., 70s.)

With the original French edition in 1967 this book took its place as one of the outstanding works on Soviet history. The care, clarity and readability of style have been rendered faithfully by the translators. Professor Nove, in concluding his preface with the injunction 'If you want to know what really happened, and why, read Lewin' claims more than the author would for his work. However, Nove's statement that the book is 'a real history of this vital period, a task which is still only partially accomplished in the Soviet Union even today,' is fair enough.

The 'vital period' is the two years 1928-29, the immediate antecedents of the all-out collectivisation drive of late 1929, and early 1930. Dr. Lewin also deals in more general terms with the entire period of the New Economic Policy (from early 1921), describing and analysing the Soviet peasantry (primarily its Russian majority), in particular the class stratification processes within it; the establishment of the Soviet administration in the countryside and its political problems there; and the critical economic problem which faced the Party—and was keenly debated by it—of investment for industrial growth and the peasant source of such investment.

The book was made possible by the amount of archival material published in the Khrushchev period. In addition, Dr. Lewin has made excellent use of older Soviet material published during the relatively free period which ended with collectivisation. (The period of the early 1930s, on which Lewin is now working, is likely to offer more problems of sources, for this reason.)

In addition to his ability to use this material in establishing and assessing relevant facts, Dr. Lewin has a first-hand knowledge of both the Russian peasantry and Soviet Communist mentality. So far as large historical and political questions are concerned, such as 'Was Stalin really necessary?', or 'Were there feasible alternatives to collectivisation?', the function of the book is not to provide answers but to facilitate answers by helping to establish what happened, both in detail and as a process. However, Lewin's own sympathies lie with the general view represented by Bukharin. (There is evidence of sympathy for this view in Soviet writings of the late 1960s.)

## NOTE TO LIBRARIANS

### ANGLO-SOVIET JOURNAL

**Volume XXVI**      Numbers 1 and 2—published as a double number  
                             Numbers 3 and 4—not published

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There is not room in this review to trace the events, attitudes, political manoeuvrings and economic policies covered by the book. Instead, I would like to take three rather broad aspects of the story which, in my opinion, have not received adequate attention from Lewin or anybody else.

The first concerns the relation between political organisation and policy. Stalin's guiding thread up to collectivisation is found not in policy but in political organisation, the outcome of which was a decisive concentration of power in his hands by 1929. In the highly dynamic and unstable condition of the USSR he could not just exercise this power, but had to do something really big with it. He could not, of course, freely choose any critical, decisive and spectacular operation. Whatever was to be done had to be some outcome of the great problems of the time, with some apparent chance of resolving them; something that would find enough willing minds and hands for its implementation. At broadly similar points in the dynamics of power Napoleon and Hitler chose war and Mao the great leap forward and the cultural revolution. My point, in relation to the Soviet decision in late 1929 to collectivise, is that the decision should be considered in the light of the *organisational* momentum of extreme concentration of power, in addition to the economic and political problems.

The second question to which I wish to draw attention is the class revolution in Russia which was triggered by the political revolution of 1917 but did not become a decisive political factor until the later 1920s (and more fully in the 1930s, when the new men replaced the old at the higher levels). This 20-year process of the rise of the working class to predominance in every institution and aspect of public life did not exclude the party itself, which had been created and was dominated by intellectuals, largely from the lesser Russian nobility, the professions and educated Jewry. The class takeover in this particular institution was led by Stalin and coloured by his own background and personality, just as his leadership was influenced by the culture and character of the new men from the social depths, who provided the willing minds and hands for collectivisation and its concomitants. It is impossible to understand not only the collectivisation, but also the quarter-century of Stalinism to which it gave rise, and indeed Soviet history since 1953, without fully taking this class factor into account.

The third question is governmental competence. In relation to the peasantry, no Soviet government has ever really tried to understand the needs of farming and the farmers, as an interest in their own right. Under Lenin, Stalin, Khrushchev and Brezhnev, agriculture has been seen in relation to the needs of industry, the Party, defence, etc., never for itself. Before collectivisation, the government's policy in relation to the countryside was extraordinarily clumsy. For example, one cause of the grain supply impasse which prompted collectivisation was the extremely incompetent price-policy of the government in relation to agricultural products—a matter which Lewin touches on, but inadequately. I am not referring here to the government's ability to pay, but to the question of fixing relative prices, in particular sharply reducing the price it paid for grain relative to meat.

JACK MILLER,

University of Glasgow.

**An Historical Geography of Russia:** by W. H. Parker. 416 pages, 101 maps including front and back papers. and 19 photographic plates, (University of London Press, 1968. Price 70s.).

Dr. Parker, lecturer in the Geography of the USSR in the University of Oxford, has given us a long needed work that surveys the relationship between the natural environment of Russia and its historical, economic and social development from prehistoric times to the present day, all within 400 pages. Faced with the task of compressing so much into a small space, one might pardon the author if he had merely produced a useful reference book; but in fact, by interspersing the text with a hundred well designed maps, stimulating quotations from contemporary sources in the various historical periods, and 19 photographic plates, Dr. Parker has produced a book that is as fascinating and almost as easy to read as a good novel.

To understand the policies of any government or the attitudes of the people of any nation, one must know something of the total environment, which exerts a profound influence through tradition; and this does not altogether disappear even after an apparently revolutionary change in ideology or political and economic structure. Unless one makes the attempt to see the Soviet Union and the world outside its frontiers with the eyes of those who have been born and live in the country, one is liable to completely misinterpret both motives and actions. Technological advance with political and social changes have given the USSR a greater choice of alternatives in solving problems of internal organisation and foreign policy; but influences from the past, stemming from controls imposed by the natural environment long ago, when men had less control over the forces of nature, are embodied in traditional approaches to life and in traditional attitudes that change very slowly. To a Russian living in Moscow, Chelvyabinsk or Vladivostok, the world looks very different from the world that we see from our little island, or the world as seen by the American in Washington, New York or Los Angeles, and the view is coloured by tradition and past experience that is inextricably interwoven with the geographical environment and its historical products.

Russian history is a record of coming to terms with the vastness of the great plain, of governing and keeping intact a territory that covers a sixth of the earth's land but has the greatest longitudinal extent of any country in the world, frontiers with China and Japan at one end and thousands of miles away to the west no line clearly defined by nature as the boundary between the Russian Plain and its extension westward into Western Europe. Yet it is precisely in the west, as every Russian knows, that repeated invasions have taken place with the loss of countless millions of Russian lives from the 15th century to the Second World War. Organisation and government of so vast and wide a territory, the search for stable frontiers and warm-water ports, coming to terms with a harsh climate and difficulties of soil and terrain are still dominant factors, influencing internal and external policies today as in the 15th century. All this is made clear in great detail by Dr. Parker; yet, as he points out at the end of his book, both American and British policy towards the U.S.S.R. would lead us to believe that those responsible for making it are ignorant of these fundamental facts. Russia's desire to secure her European frontiers has been misrepresented, says Dr. Parker, as evidence of a plan for the domination of Europe. Britain has followed American policy rather than the alternative of continuing the war-time alliance (incidentally this is but one example of repetition of historical patterns. In 1912 a liberal MP, Henry Norman, advocated Britain's alliance with Russia to offset the growth of American political strength and achieve a more stable international balance of power).

Those of us who have visited the Soviet Union regularly cannot fail to understand the statement made by Edward Crankshaw and quoted by Dr. Parker that in our two countries there is 'a fundamental spirit of humanity and kindness, distilled from the same ingredients, which is found nowhere else.' Paradoxically, in attempting to attain friendship and understanding with Russia, we come up against that other admirable Russian quality—strength, but often expressed in the form of autocracy, outright cruelty at times, and heavy-handed blundering diplomacy—quite incomprehensible until one realises that the Russian attitude to life is the product of an en-



vironment much harsher, more difficult, and far less secure than ours.

Dr. Parker's book would be valuable if it were no more than an account of Russian social and economic life through the centuries right up to 1960, but it achieves much more than this; it helps us to understand this growth in relation to the most striking feature of Russia's geography — continentality and because of this, isolation. As the author states in his first chapter: 'The expansion of old Russia into the modern U.S.S.R. has changed this surprisingly little' and further, 'The frontiers, a mere century-long in American History, has been a dominating influence in Russian History since the birth of the nation a thousand years and more ago . . . and is likely to persist as such for centuries.'

We may not agree with every one of Dr. Parker's conclusions, but the views of a scholar who brings great breadth of vision to his work, cannot be ignored. Our own survival, personally as well as a nation, may well depend on our ability to understand and establish a mutually beneficial *modus vivendi* with the USSR as well as the USA. To do this we need a much less parochial, a much broader view of the part played by geography in determining the policies of nations. Dr. Parker's work can be recommended as a useful lead in this direction, a valuable source of accurate information for the student, and a most pleasant and stimulating book for the general reader.

JAMES S. GREGORY,  
*Furzedown College of Education.*

**The Grass of Oblivion.** By Valentin Katayev. Translated from the Russian and with an Introduction by Robert Daglish (Macmillan, 1969, 45s., 222 pp.).

Mr. Robert Daglish needs no introduction for the readers of the *Anglo-Soviet Journal*, to which he regularly contributes his Moscow Diary with its stimulating and perceptive insights into the current Soviet scene based on deep knowledge and a profound affectionate sympathy. Many of our readers will also be familiar with his work as a translator of Soviet fiction—work for which he was last year awarded the Badge of Honour by the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR.

His introductory essay to this volume,

'Katayev and His Critics,' was, as the publishers note, first published in the January, 1968 issue of the *Anglo-Soviet Journal*. It might also be added that the translation itself first appeared in *Soviet Literature*, the English-language journal published in Moscow which deserves to be much more widely known in Britain.

Hitherto Valentin Katayev has been known in Britain as the author of 'Lone White Sail,' the exciting adventure story set against the background of the 1905 Revolution on which the classic Soviet film of the same name is based. But the publication last year of an English translation of 'The Holy Well' helped English-speaking readers to discover new facets of the work of this outstanding Soviet writer of the older generation.

Both biography and autobiography, 'The Grass of Oblivion' is a memoir of Katayev's relationship; with two diametrically opposite giants of Russian literary history, Bunin and Mayakovsky. In the first part of the book, he recalls his friendship with Bunin, the writer who rejected the Revolution and its ideals, preferring exile and death abroad. In the second, he tells of his eight years of friendship with Mayakovsky the passionate tribune of the Revolution, hounded to suicide and then canonised by those who mouthed its slogans but could not grasp its true spirit.

Its central theme is the very contemporary one of the Artist and the Revolution. It is a plea for a deeper, more thoughtful approach to the problem of the relationship between the writer and society. 'Lenin called Dostoevsky execrable, but this did not prevent him from signing a decree on the erection of a monument to Dostoevsky,' Katayev recalls.

This volume—richly textured, evocative, deeply moving—is in that elusive 'lyrical-documentary' style which has in recent years re-emerged in Soviet writing, and which presents many difficulties to the translator. Mr. Daglish has surmounted these difficulties with skill, and he is to be congratulated on a translation of great sensitivity.

DENNIS OGDEN.

**Southern Adventure:** by Konstantin Paustovsky. Trans. Kyril FitzLyon. (Harvil Press, London, 1969, 30s.).

The rich material in this fifth volume of 'Story of a Life' will appeal especi-

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ally to those interested in the impact of Soviet ideology on the peoples east of the Black Sea. From Abkhazia in the north of the area, through the Caucasus to the Persian border, Paustovsky records his impressions. His clear style and intimate manner make the incidents vivid: the proud Abkhazian horsemen and their women, aged from working as beasts of burden; the blood feud in which a refugee came home, believing Soviet ideology prevailed—and he was shot as he tried to shake hands; the feudal prince, who wisely renounced his future tribute, after receiving ox-carts laden with produce; Paustovsky robbed by deserters in the mountains; moor-hens, jackals and bears that plagued their camp by the lake; the man who shot Lieut. Smith of *Potemkin* fame; the Tbilisi futurist circle; a perilous journey by rail past snow-capped Mount Ararat, through a gorge where basking snakes were cut through by the train wheels, and on to the ancient Armenian capital.

A fine, bright jacket by Ivonne Skargon suggests why Paustovsky began to long for cool northern forests. FitzLyon's translation is generally unobtrusive (though '... how this part of Georgia was called' on p. 211 is a shock), and I prefer it to the exotic partnerships with Manya Harari in the previous volumes. This is highly readable.

KATHLEEN W. WILLIAMS,  
University of Aston in Birmingham.

**Art and Revolution: Ernst Neizvestny and the Role of the Artist in the USSR.** By John Berger (Weidenfeld & Nicolson, 30s., Penguin Paperback, 12s.).

Perceptions, truths, reached by this author in his critical writing have to pass through the sharpest of individual processes to their realisation. In this book he develops that process, carries his discoveries and findings further than ever before.

The core of the relationship between the artist and today's world is in this statement: *What matters are the needs which art answers.* Berger says: 'I wish to make no competitive claim for the importance of Neizvestny's art. Obviously I consider his art important, or I would not have spent a year thinking and writing about it. Yet during that year I have come to see that the arranging of artists in a hierarchy of merit is

an idle and essentially dilettante process. What matters are the needs which art answers.'

For Berger the sculptor Neizvestny epitomises the struggle to emancipate the visual arts in the USSR. He says: 'Neizvestny is not opposing 'private' art to 'public' art. He creates his monumental sculptors for the public, for the crowds, and the best of his work expresses an essential part of the experience being lived by millions of people in the world today—the struggle for freedom from exploitation. *Neizvestny's sculpture is a living monument to the endurance needed for that struggle.*'

I use Berger's words. How otherwise, than in these two brief (italicised) statements, could the purpose and analysis of the book be expressed so clearly? They carry the importance and the challenge of his criticism. In his theme for art, for Neizvestny's art, of active endurance in today's world, with its enormous, new, emerging, conscious nationalities, he opens fresh doors in Marxist thought. He shows how this has become a collective determination to survive, a prophecy of the emergent world's future in today's conflicting world. 'To prophesy now' he writes 'all that is necessary is to know men as they are.'

His arrival at this view is interwoven with his analysis of Neizvestny, of the character of sculpture itself, and of the Russian and then Soviet historic background to their present official attitude to the visual arts. The return to the academic, after the full, unique, and revolutionary outburst in all the visual arts before and after 1917, is analysed including the contradiction—so incomprehensible to the critics of the West—between the static character of Socialist Naturalism and the developing width of the Soviet citizen's interest in the arts.

The account of the work of Neizvestny, his enormous energy and his concentration on the quality and character of man in today's world, has been enlarged on, since the book was published, in a television programme (BBC 1) where Berger and his film collaborator displayed a massive series of Neizvestny's visionary drawings of men in growth and conflict, drawings in which the present world struggle of peoples to become fully men against the backward forces of imperialism, carry a powerful and permanent impact.

Also since the book was written, there has been the news, of great relevance to

Neizvestny's content, of his employment, with Soviet architects, on a sculpture for the Aswan Dam.

BARBARA NIVEN.

**The Zinoviev Letter:** by Lewis Chester, Stephen Fay and Hugo Young (Heinemann, 1967, 30s., 219 pp., 28 illustrations).

A detailed investigation into all the evidence, including important new matter, on this 'political intrigue,' as the sub-title aptly describes it.

We can now see clearly how this document was forged by a group of Russian émigrés in Berlin, planted in the European intelligence network, and foisted on the bewildered Ramsay MacDonald, to the ruin of his 1924 Election chances.

The complicated manœuvres and manipulations in London are carefully traced up to the point where, in the words of the authors, "The Conservative Party paid £5,000 to abet the greatest electoral windfall in its history."

The text is somewhat repetitious but the book is an invaluable mine of factual interest to all students of modern political history, the more so since all three co-authors are men of standing, intimately connected with the *Sunday Times*. The illustrations are well selected and add much to the clarity of the points made.

W. W. BEGLEY.

**The Third Department. The Political Police in the Russia of Nicholas I:** by P. S. Squire (Cambridge University Press, 1968, 70s., 272 pp.).

The aim of this volume is accurately described in its Introduction: 'To examine the system of political investigation and surveillance in Russia which was created by Nicholas I in the second quarter of the last century.' In six chapters Dr. Squire traces the history of the 'Third Department of His Imperial Majesty's Own Chancellery,' and of its military arm, the Corps of Gendarmes. He describes the organisation and operations of the two bodies, and examines the careers and influence of some of their leading officials, such as this first chief and founder, Count Benckendorff, and his Chief Assistant, Dubbelt. Seven appendices include the memorandum of Count Benckendorff which became the blueprint for the political police, and the ukase which created the Third Department.

It is, as Dr. Squire points out, a work of 'administrative history,' designed to supplement earlier, more general accounts. It sets out a mass of detail, all presented with great scholarship and elegance.

But, precisely because it is a work of 'administrative history,' the volume cannot but suffer from an important—and largely self-imposed—limitation. The Third Department and the Corps of Gendarmes were created in the aftermath of the defeat of the Decembrist uprising of 1825, the leaders of which had sought reform and an end to autocracy. The express aim of the Third Department was to prevent any recurrence of such a threat to tsarism, and to check the spread of sedition and dissent. It was tsarism's reaction to the wave of revolution that was sweeping contemporary Europe.

Dr. Squire underlines this essential political role. But it tends to be submerged by the mass of 'administrative' detail, and by accounts of activities which were historically of far less significance. This tendency is all the more pronounced because Dr. Squire expressly excludes any examination of one of the most significant aspects of the work of the Third Department—its intervention in the fields of literature and journalism.

In the appendices Dr. Squire includes Instructions given by the chief of Gendarmes to one 'Lieut. Shervud-Vernyi.' Elsewhere in a footnote, he points out that Shervud earned his title 'Vernyi' ('the Loyal') by discovering and reporting on the existence of the Decembrist conspiracy. This prompts the recollection that some years ago a Soviet writer expressed the opinion that 'Shervud' was in fact an English soldier of fortune, Sherwood by name. Interest is whetted by this suggestion of so baleful an episode in Anglo-Russian relations!

DENNIS OGDEN.

**Seven Russian Playlets:** by D. M. Cooper (Pergamon Press, 1969, 12s. hard cover, 7s. 6d. flexi-cover).

There is a dearth of suitable dramatic readers for 'O' level Russian Students. This volume has its shortcomings. Not everyone will find the subject matter of all the playlets interesting. The language, though on the whole fairly simple, does contain difficult phrases and expressions and it is a pity that no vocabulary or notes are provided. How-

ver, those teachers who believe in drama as an important aid to language learning will find this a very useful book.

**JOHN C. HARRISON,**  
*Firth Park Grammar School, Sheffield.*

**Russian Word Formation.** By N. M. Shanskii. Translated by B. S. Johnson; edited by J. E. S. Cooper, with a preface by Vaughan James (Pergamon Press, Oxford/London, 1968, pp. vii, 174. Pergamon Oxford Russian Series. The Commonwealth and International Library of Science Technology, Engineering and Liberal Studies, 42s.).

Books from the Pergamon Press are notoriously expensive for what they are. The present one is no exception. At 42s. the buyer is paying nearly 3d. a page, not all of which are free of misprints. The content that appears on those pages is not all that illuminating because the logic of the exposition is not sustained: but this may be rather the fault of the translating and editing.

The translation is adequate, but uninspired. On the one hand the translator gives us the slow-moving 'conse-

quently', 'therefore' and 'it is imperative' literally from the original without realising that what may be a natural part of scholarly exposition in Russian is not so in English, to which the hortatory/imperative style is alien. Such blemishes could have been removed in the general abridgement and editing. On the other hand the translator also translates literally Russian linguistic terminology without finding the English equivalent. How else can the gobbledygook on p. 83 be explained: 'It is characteristic of the non-derivative stem that . . . its designation of objects of reality is always direct, purely conventional and unmotivated from the point of view of contemporary semantic-word-formation connections.' Drastic surgery is needed on that sentence to release the meaning that as it stands enjoys only a sickly life.

The editing also raises some questions. In the preface we are told that this translation is an edited version of Part 1 of Shanskii's *Ocherki po russkomu slovoobrazovaniiu i leksikologii* (1959). It is presumably intended for teachers of Russian and for students of Russian. At least the original was, and

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one cannot see the non-specialist reading the English version. Why then has it been felt necessary to give an English translation in footnotes of the Russian words that appear in the text, when most of those words are not at all that uncommon? On many pages this kind of footnote runs into collision with another system of footnotes which amplify points made in the text. This dual system running parallel is confusing and irritating. Particularly bad in this respect are pp. 87-8 with the second set having to be carried over to the second of the two pages. In the editing process surely the quotation from Chernyshevskii on p. 159 on the 'decided superiority' of the Russian language could have been excised, since the league-table approach to language adds nothing to our understanding.

Shanskii deals with the principles of word-formation and their analysis, showing very clearly that this is a different thing from the *etymological* analysis of words. He then gives a thorough survey with copious examples of the morphology of the Russian language. But because of the editing—although the fault may be there in the original—the thread of the argument is easily lost. The paragraphs are bitty. The argument and exposition develop in a stop-go fashion. Shanskii makes many excellent points and gives many revealing examples, but too often there is an air of the blindingly obvious being presented as the latest discovery. Even in his details, though, Shanskii (or his editors) can be not quite accurate enough. With reference to p. 109 it is not enough to say that the suffix *-it* in *laringit* has the meaning of 'illness' or that the suffix *-skop* in *mikroskop* has the meaning of 'instrument'. These suffixes also indicate what kind of illness and what kind of instrument.

The book would be worth buying at half the price. There are many interesting linguistic details, but no argument that illuminates them.

C. A. JOHNSON,  
University of Leeds.

**Politico-Economic Problems of Capitalism:** by Y. Varga (Progress Publishers, Moscow).

Professor Varga explains the trouble that he got into in 1948 for his book on *Changes in Capitalist Economy*

*Resulting from the Second World War* as being due, not to pressure exerted on him in the Soviet Union, but to the response of the Western Press which greeted it as a criticism of the Communist Party (p. 50). In 1967 his essays were published with full approval and we are now provided with an English translation.

The author declares his position in the Preface: The book, written polemically, is directed against thoughtless dogmatism, which until recently was widespread in works on the economy and politics of capitalism.

What, in this case, do I mean by dogmatism?

I mean, first and foremost, a denial of the essence of Marxism—the concrete scientific analysis of historical facts, a denial of what Lenin called the 'living soul' of Marxism. Dogmatism substitutes ready conclusions, which Marx drew as a result of his studies in definite historical conditions for the Marxist method of research. It also means that dogmatists proceed from the assumption that not only are Marx's general laws governing capitalist development valid to this very day, but that all the facts must be identical to those obtained during Marx's or Lenin's lifetime. From here dogmatists are but a step away from adjusting facts to individual conclusions of Marxism, ignoring new facts which fit badly in their schemes instead of analysing new phenomena typical of modern capitalism (p. 11).

He attacks the dogmatists; (including Stalin) on a variety of points. He denies that capitalist governments act only in the interests of the great monopolists. In a time of crisis, particularly in the face of the competition of the socialist world, the western governments act in the interest of the bourgeoisie as a whole, and this involves making concessions to the workers to retain their allegiance (p. 65).

He accepts Marx law of the falling tendency of the rate of profit, but as a tendency only; in practice there is no evidence that it is being realised (p. 149). The tendency (assumed by Marx) to an evening out of rate of profit is counteracted by the power of the monopolist firms, who succeed in maintaining a higher than average rate of profit for themselves at the expense of the small capitalists rather than at



he expense of their own workers (p. 155). He denies that the bourgeoisie of the newly liberated ex-colonial nations are necessarily a reactionary force (p. 85 et seq.). He points out that the dogma of absolute impoverishment of the workers in the advanced industrial nations not only leads to theoretically absurd results but is politically inept as it alienates the trade unions who are struggling to better the position of their members within capitalism (p. 119-124). He analyses Keynesian doctrine, not to refute it from a Marxist point of view but to account for its great popularity with western governments. In all this his argument is more penetrating and effective than the general run of Marxist interpretation of current developments, but on the main point he is inclined to hedge; capitalism since the war has succeeded in avoiding major recessions. Is this a permanent mutation in capitalism or is it merely the result of chance factors that may soon be expected to weaken? Varga is reluctant to admit that capitalism has changed but yet he allows that perhaps it has (p. 238).

An intelligent Marxist analysis of the problems of capitalism is far less easy to answer than crude dogmatism. If western economists think that Varga is coming out on their side they are very much mistaken.

PROFESSOR JOAN ROBINSON  
Cambridge University.

**A Russian Journey. From Suzdal to Samarkand.** By Alaric Jacob and Paul Hogarth (Cassell, 1969, 50s.).

*Paul and I decided that one day we would travel through Russia together with sketchbook and typewriter, with no set programme, and in a picaresque spirit make use of whatever came our way.*

Twenty years elapsed between decision and execution. They knew, of course, that it would never be like that. An Intourist experience can be the stuff that dreams are made of, but it is never the dream you first thought of. And in any case the gap in years produced distances of another kind. Dependent on memories inherited from another era, and armed with a few (not always reliable) contacts, what emerges in print turns out to be yet another Intourist journey, padded out with

autobiography and political aside, garnished with some interesting stylistic excursions.

‘The Russian attitude to flying has become pedestrian because long-distance flights are now cheaper than train journeys.’ This has the minor virtue of being literally untrue, whereas: ‘*It is a truth universally acknowledged that any man who writes a book about the Soviet Union should start with an apology for adding yet another mite to an already over-ripe cheese,*’ evades any such simple analysis.

It comes as no surprise then to read that Mr. Jacob once worked for the *Daily Express*. In fact it is the author’s inability to marry his fundamental sympathy for the Soviet Union to Express-type capsulated observation which prevents the book from having the coherence he clearly had hoped for. For Soviet reality is peculiarly resistant to journalistic. Paradoxically one feels that if Mr. Hogarth’s interesting drawings had been accompanied by a simple diary rather than the attempted ‘journal’ the reader would have been the richer. Mr. Jacob as a camera, recording direct, is good, and in this, the book really works in its vignettes of Moscow, Suzdal, Samarkand, Tbilisi, Gori, Kiev and Leningrad. Only the flashbacks and the introspection suggest to us that twenty years was too long to wait.

RICHARD COOK.

**Marshal Zhukov’s Greatest Battles.**

Georgi K. Zhukov. Edited by Harrison E. Salisbury, translated from the Russian by Theodore Shabad (Macdonald, London, 1969, £2 5s.).

As the title suggests, this is a series of accounts of the most important battles of the second world war in which Marshal Zhukov played a leading part. These accounts consist of translations of portions of articles by Zhukov in the Soviet military press. The full memoirs are said to have been written and the balance is due to appear later. One cannot help feeling that it is a pity the publishers could not wait until the whole work could be adequately presented. The maps, for example, are of the most general kind and do not give much help in following tactical details; many places mentioned are not shown. In fact a series of maps would be needed

for each battle to show the successive plans and situations, whereas only one map is allowed per battle. Nevertheless, what remains of the memoirs is of the greatest interest.

Zhukov restricts himself to a crisp, professional report on the events in so far as they concerned him directly. Occasionally there is a personal human touch; one has the impression that the editor overdoes the 'ruthless' aspect of Zhukov's character in his introductory notes. Here and there Zhukov clearly intends to rectify previous erroneous assessments of people and events, not only in his own interest, I think, but also for the benefit of those who had been misrepresented. Occasionally he is clearly just settling an old score. Since he played a decisive part in major events, Zhukov's account, apparently straightforward in most cases, must be regarded as authoritative.

Zhukov first became involved in the battle for Moscow just after Hitler launched operation 'Typhoon,' in October 1941, with the intention of surrounding most of the Soviet forces on the central front and then enveloping Moscow in a deep pincer movement from north and south. The Nazis succeeded in their enveloping move and were advancing almost unopposed on Moscow when Stalin brought him from Leningrad to tour the front and make a situation report. He then appointed him commander of all forces west of Moscow. Zhukov blames the various command levels for not having discovered the main projected lines of the German advance and concentrating all possible forces in depth in those directions, with emphasis on anti-tank defence. He says, however, nothing of the responsibility of the supreme command. Zhukov emphasises in all his accounts the vital importance of intelligence and reconnaissance work and the basic principle of concentration of force. He has something to say about the elementary notions of avoiding frontal attacks and of commanders being at their command posts during a battle. He found Budienny quite out of touch with his headquarters and his troops. At the same time preparation for battle required a commander to work out all details together with his various units. At this stage of the war the commanders of the Stalin era clearly had a lot to learn about military operations.

Zhukov set about re-organising the retreating armies, together with reinforcements from strategic reserves, in a series of deep defence zones. The government, party and supreme command, acted with great energy in mobilising the whole population to build defences, often with bare hands, and to supply the front with all possible material and men. The German advance was halted. Zhukov gives full credit to the work done at all levels but he was clearly the key to military operations on the Moscow front. As to the role of Stalin, although, in Zhukov's eyes, he made grave errors of military appreciation, he exercised enormous influence in organising the rear and in co-ordinating the defence as a whole.

In November the Germans made a last desperate effort which brought them temporarily level with Moscow to the north and beyond it in the south. Zhukov had tried unsuccessfully to prevent Stalin from wasting vital reserves in a futile counter-attack before the start of the last German offensive effort. Now, however, the moment that Zhukov had anticipated had come. The Germans were exhausted. The reinforced Soviet armies threw them back and won the first decisive victory of the war against the German army. This was of great historic importance. Although Zhukov later commanded larger forces, he says he always thinks of those terrible days before Moscow as the most memorable part of his wartime experiences.

Once again Zhukov differed with Stalin, who now ordered simultaneous offensives at widely separated parts of the front. Zhukov correctly estimated that they were only strong enough to win on one front. The result was the failure to carry through major attempts at envelopment and the encirclement of three of their own armies by the Germans in turn; a costly strategic error. Zhukov does, however, associate himself with the mistaken overestimation of their own strength as far as his particular front was concerned.

During the Stalingrad operation Zhukov was made deputy commander-in-chief, the only one Stalin ever appointed. He had again clashed with Stalin before the start of the German summer offensive of 1942, when Stalin insisted on a pre-emptive strike at Kharkov from a dangerous salient. Ad-



vancing with weakly guarded flanks, despite the known presence of superior German armoured forces, Timoshenko allowed several armies to be completely cut off by a flanking blow. Whereas Khrushchev, as political commissar on this front, later blamed Stalin for not stopping the advance in time to deal with the threat on the flank, Zhukov blames Timoshenko and Khrushchev.

The whole of the southern front collapsed. Stalin's decision to hold the strategic reserves behind the central front had not helped either. In the bitter struggle that eventuated in the great Soviet victory at Stalingrad new successful commanders like Vatutin, Pokossovsky, Tolbukhin and Malinovsky came to the fore. Zhukov, together with Vassilevsky, chief of staff to the supreme command, co-ordinated the defence of Stalingrad and the subsequent offensive. Here again Zhukov rejected Stalin's plan for a premature counter-attack, in favour of a protracted defence and a carefully prepared offensive in overwhelming strength in the decisive directions and on more far-reaching lines. Stalin this time agreed and the supreme command successfully prepared the victory that was to mark the turning point of the war.

Hitler's 'Waterloo' came at Kursk in the summer of 1943, in the big Soviet held salient between Orel and Belgorod. Stalin wavered between Zhukov's policy of defence leading to offence and a desire to strike first so as to prevent the German offensive from starting. However, he adopted Zhukov's view.

For the first time, in the greatest tank battle in history, the German offensive was contained by a deep defensive position combined with planned counter-attacks and almost immediately thrown back by a prepared counter-offensive. Losing 500,000 men within a few weeks around the Kursk salient, the Nazis yielded the initiative to the Soviet armies finally and irrevocably.

In 1945 differences again emerged. Zhukov was placed in command of one front only, the first Byelorussian front on the direct line of advance to Berlin. Stalin took over the co-ordination of all fronts personally. The probably political reasons for this can only be guessed at. Then the decision to halt the advance on Berlin in February, while mopping up took place in the right flank in Pomerania, is still open to debate. Zhukov is at pains to deny Chuikov's opinion that Berlin could have been taken that month. I find his account not fully convincing and in places confusing. The actual advance on Berlin is treated in very summary fashion; this is the least satisfactory part of the book. One suspects that much more remains to be said on this score.

Zhukov emerges as a great military commander. Stalin appears as the key to the entire war effort but not as a great strategist or tactician. Let us hope that in future we may be allowed a full account by Marshal Zhukov of his views and experiences covering the entire course of the second world war.

JOHN PURTON.

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